DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 217 373 CS 006 619

AUTHOR Crawford, Leslie W.
TITLE Providing Effective Reading Instruction for Refugee Students.
PUB DATE Apr 82
NOTE 34p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association (27th, Chicago, IL, April 26-30, 1982).

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC02 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Cultural Awareness; Decoding (Reading); Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); Language Experience Approach; Miscue Analysis; *Reading Comprehension; *Reading Instruction; *Reading Readiness; *Second Language Instruction; *Second Language Learning
IDENTIFIERS *Reading Strategies

ABSTRACT

In learning to read a nonnative language, the learner's ability to achieve meaning is hampered if adequate preparation or readiness for reading is neglected. A review of the literature pertaining to second language learning and reading in a second language has identified five principles that appear to be significant in providing effective reading strategies for the nonnative learner. The five principles are that (1) students need cultural preparation, because all reading material is culturally oriented as to plot, characterization, setting, and values; (2) students need background knowledge and experiences, in order to bring meaning to the printed page to predict, confirm, and compose; (3) instruction should emphasize more whole-word techniques that include syntactic and semantic clues as well as configuration and picture clues; (4) reading evaluation strategies should include miscue analysis, deleting language-related but nonmeaning miscues; and (5) strategies that link language to writing and reading should be applied to print readiness, through language experience approaches and commercial reading material adaptation. (Appendixes include a bibliography, Dale's Cone of Learning Experience, some key prefixes and suffixes and roots, Bett's Levels of Reading Development, a checklist to determine readiness for introducing reading, a language experience activity format for a group, and a lesson strategy for literate first language readers.) (HOD)

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PROVIDING EFFECTIVE READING INSTRUCTION FOR REFUGEE STUDENTS

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
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by
Dr. Leslie W. Crawford
Moorhead State University

Reading as a language process, is also a comprehension process. A readers's primary goal is always to gain meaning. Meaning is composed from the background of knowledge and experiences the reader brings to the printed page and the author's graphic shapes. Reading is reconstructing a message from print into the reader's own meaning system. Readers will be able to gain meaning only when all language systems are capable of being utilized in reading. These include the letter/sound relationships, graphophonics, sentence level and grammatical understanding, syntatic, and meaning level relationships semantic (Y. Goodman). Extensive oral language proficiency is essential to reading success (Buck; Clarke). Oral language proficiency provides the reader with all the above language systems, but the graphic. Reading like language is apprehended from a total message. It is not understood like the coupling of words together, for it is only in the total or global context that meaning is accurately perceived.

In learning to read a non-native language the learner is hampered in achieving meaning if adequate preparation or readiness for reading is neglected. For example: (Buck)

Graphophonic System	Unfamiliar print represents unfamilar sound
Syntactic System	Unfamiliar with words carring most important meaning. Unfamiliar with parts of words crucial to meaning usage. Unfamiliar with particular sentence patterns.
Semantic System	Unfamiliar with concepts, values and cultural aspects.

The situation improves for the learner who is literate in one language. Learning to read a second language then becomes an extension of literacy (Buck, p. 91). Experienced first language readers will hypothesize and attempt to fit the new language into the conceptual and communication system they developed for their first language (B. Perez). There is a high correlation between reading proficiency in the native language and second language (Mott, p. 65).

Paper Presented at the International Reading Convention Preconvention Institute "Refugee Students: A New Challenge To Reading Teachers", Chicago, Ill., April, 1982.

CS006619

It is important in understanding the reading process to realize that reading requires prediction (Smith, 1978b p. 85). We utilize the language system to predict which words, phrases, meaning will be in a passage based on our prior experiences with the topic, the type of reading and perhaps familiarity with the author. Consequently, we eliminate, disregard, confirm and re-read. In simple terms we ask questions, and comprehension ocurrs when the questions are answered (Smith, 1978b, p. 85). We also predict based on what we know about the word. Consequently, reading for meaning requires a great deal of beforehand knowledge of language, culture and society to read.

Significant Factors Bearing on Teaching English Second Language Learners Reading

A review of literature pertaining to second language learning and reading in a second language has identified five factors which have probably greater bearing on teaching reading in a second langauge than any of the other numberous aspects. These will be discussed and recommendations for applying appropriate reading teaching strategies presented. The five factors are as follows:

1. The affect of cultural origin on comprehension
2. The affect of background and experiences on comprehension
3. The affect of the overuse of graphic clues on comprehension
4. Oral reading as an inaccurate indicator of comprehension
5. The affect of oral language proficiency on reading success

Cultural Origin and Comprehension. Although reading educators have recognized for many years that students from different backgrounds bring different sets of values and social experiences to the classroom (Zintz, 1970, p. 326), only recently have these differences been shown to affect reading comprehension (P. Johnson; Schafer; Smith, 1978b, p. 79).

Living and growing in a particular cultural setting prepares the reader to predict, interpret or understand a culture's written materials. Plots, characters, settings, motives, values and expectations typical in a culture will be more easily perceived. Consequently, refugee students reading about the American way of life, its people and places may find it very difficult to understand. Students may not be able to identify with the characters, setting or their thinking-values unless they can experience these situations for themselves. Thus, refugee students will require extensive experiences with American life, its culture in first-hand experiences, stories, tales, and dramatizations.

There is a point of view about reading deriving from Smith (1978b, p. 79) that we have in our heads a theory of what the world is like. This theory is the basis of all our perceptions and understandings, roots of learning, sources of asperations. B. Perez extends this idea to include language as the way a particular culture perceives the world. Consequently, learning to communicate in a second language

through speaking and writing requires a learner to adopt that unique perception or theory of the world as seen through the eyes of the target culture as one's own.

Educators working with refugees need to study their students' cultural origins: What are the unique socio-cultural characteristics these people possess? For example:

> How are elders regarded? Teachers?
> What value is placed on education? What is learning?
> What status is given various jobs, roles and/or positions?
> How important is competition?
> What are important holidays and/or festivals?
> How are these celebrated? What behavior is appropriate?
> What oral communication behavior is appropriate?
> How is disagreement expressed? How important is it not to offend?
> Are there prevalent supersititions? ie., colors? situations?
> What are approved roles for males and females? What is the role of the family? (Indochinese Refugee Education Guides)

Shafer (p. 119) makes a point that language does not determine one's view of the world, it constrains it. "It makes certain conclusions regarding events which are more likely than others." Vietnamese are encouraged to perceive certain situations in a special way, and to feel and act strongly when they find themselves in these situations, because their language instills in them certain predispositions.

Reading relies heavily on what meanings a reader brings to the printed page to predict what is there that the author has written. Consequently, non-native readers will bring their own cultural experiences, their cultural perceptions of the world to predict and compose meaning. Without appropriately similar cultural learning perceptions for refugees of the American culture, comprehension may not be achieved. Using strategies that develop a reader's cultural perception appears a valid application of this concept.

Background Experiences and Comprehension. A reader's background experiences are in many cases inseparable from cultural experiences. Reading requires that prior knowledge and experience be utilized (Mott). The more familiar the topic, the greater the retention of the material. The prior experience a reader brings to reading facilitates predicting or anticipating reading material content.

Developing adequate background experiences requires appropriate conceptual development. In learning a second language the experiences may be insufficient or inadequate for developing conceptual understandings at a level appropriate for reading material (Campbell). Concepts and vocabulary should be thought of as one and the same. Concepts can be considered to develop in stages from concrete and identify to classification and finally formal or conceptual (Klausmier & Allen).

The ability of the second language reader to predict what will follow or be included in the reading, confirm the predicitons and compose the ideas into meaning is dimished without insufficient 'real' world experiences.

Cultural and Experience Strategies. Concepts can best be developed by providing students with experiences at a concrete level. The Dale Cone of Experience (See Appendix I) best symbolizes various learning experiences in relation to concrete and abstract learning. It is conceived upon a premise that the more involved the student is in an experience, the more concrete it is. The Cone identifies a hierarchy of concreteness or abstractness. Those experiences which are most abstract thus puts the student in a more passive role.

Teachers working with refugee students need to determine not only the concepts to be taught, but to analyze a student's understanding of the concepts perhaps in relation to a simple three-level hierarchy of concepts (Recognition, Classification/Categorization, and Conceptual) and plan and provide experiences that will aid the student to understand. A good rule of thumb in determining appropriate learning experiences is to provide more concrete experiences for those concepts that are new or unfamiliar.

Cultural bridges to reading readiness can be developed through a number of familiar practices. Three that will provide the learner with Western culture, plot, and characters and tie print to speech are:

a) Reading aloud or telling favorite tales that allow the listener to soon chime-in and speak repeated lines over and over, ie:

   Little Red Hen
   The Three Billy Goats Gruff
      (Music and records are also available)
   The Three Bears
   The Three Pigs

   (Many recent or newer stories also fall into this category.)

b) Dramatizing familiar stories, first while being read, later speaking the lines from memory. (Some adult groups have taken to the 'spirit' of these and take home the ideas to younger children, thus acculturating them, also!)

c) Reciting choral selections from short 2-3 lines to longer selections of a number of stanzas. These should begin with selections that have many repetitions. These can be placed on charts or typed in primary size print and reproduced. The chart has the advantage of allowing the teacher to move his/her hand long the lines as it is read. Start with those that have very broad humorous content, unless it is an older literate first-language group.

Developing socio-cultural background of the American society can be handled for older as well as many younger second language readers through use of audiovisual sources: pictures, filmstrips, films and selected television specials or shorts. Considering the Dale Cone, again, a field trip, of course would be better, but may not be feasible. Learnings from an audio-visual source or field trip should always be followed by having the student identify and summarize ideas. Next record these on a chart for reference, have them, 'read' back from memory. Topics for these will flow from second language texts, reading and content area textbooks that include concepts that are unfamiliar to the students. It is absolutely essential to analyze each story being taught or each unit for those concepts that will cause understanding difficulty due to socio-cultural differences and inappropriate background experiences on the part of the refugee student. Thus, the teacher can then start where the conceptual barrier is and prepare the student for the learning experience. There may be basal reading stories or content chapters so inappropriate for the student at a given stage of development that it should be deleated from the program; any essential skills or learnings can be included at another more appropriate point.

Overuse of Graphic Clues. English second language readers have a tendency to be overconcerned with the graphic level of reading, i.e., to focus on words (Haddad; Kalnitz & Judd; Mott). This may result from a fear to error; because this is not the native language, the reader is adhering to the surface level of reading in a concern to get all the cues possible for comprehension. Literate first-language readers may have even a greater tendency to look to the graphic level for cues. The fact is, in the former instance, that the reader doesn't know which cues are essential to determine for meaning. Students reading a second language must learn from a sufficient and adequate oral language foundation which graphic cues to select, and then select a minimum providing a maximum of information for comprehension. Adequate knowledge and experience is crucial for the process for both predicting and confirming what will be in the text (Mott, p. 67). Kalnitz and Judd found older literate first language readers tied to their dictionaries reading slowly, word by word, everything read the same way, striving for perfect pronunciation and 100% comprehension. This word-by-word reading according to Goodman (1979, p. 10) can cause word calling or loss of meaning.

Two factors may be causing this tendency towards word calling or over-emphasis on graphic cues: (1) inadequate language competence limiting grammatical and semantic prediciton (Goodman, 1979, p. 59), and (2) over-emphasis on phonic blending (Hodes, Smith, 1978b, p. 55). Devine, in comparing native and non-native readers recommended that classroom activities strive for sense and meaning rather than letter-perfect reading. Smith (1978b, p. 60) stated that readers should be expected to comprehend written language directly without first decoding to speech.

Smith believes that we recognize words in the same way as we do all objects. Words can be distinguised as rapidly as any other

objects. Words, according to Smith, need not be said to be comprehended, in fact they may need to be comprehended before they can be said! Goodman (1978, p. 59) reminds us along this train of thought "that readers can not possibly be reading language a letter or word at a time, since the time it takes to do that far exceeds the time the reader actually devotes to the given sequence." Since we have no difficulty in attaching meaning directly to spoken words, why should it be more difficult to attach meaning to written words (Smith, 1978b, p. 60)?

Beginning readers must learn to be graphically selective as they read, taking in only the minimal graphic and syntactic cues necessary for comprehension (Mott, p. 66). Readers have shown by research to produce miscues with graphic and phonemic similarity to the text, those not, tend to be more syntactically and semantically acceptable (Devine; Mott; Goodman; 1978). What place, then, should phonics have for the second language reader?

Phonics, according to Smith (1978b, p. 56-59), is simple if you know the word, and if you can read. However, the links, rules or generalizations are too complex for beginning readers unless used only to reduce alternatives (Smith, p. 1972). Words have different pronunciations for the same spelling (read, lead; wind, wound) and different spellings for the same pronunciation (so, sow, sew). Rules do not tell us how to pronounce units, ie., th in father and fathead, or the various sounds of ho (hot, hope, hook, hoot, house, hoist, horse, horizon, honey, hour, honest) (Smith, 1978b, p. 53-6). Spelling was intended to represent meaning not sound. Phonics is not the source of meaning; letters are too variable. Meaning comes from the reader's language competence, knowledge and background experiences which enables predictions from print to reach meaning. (Smith, 1978b, p.64).

Graphic To Meaning-Developing Strategies. A number of strategies for teaching reading will aid the second langauge reader to learn to choose minimal graphic clues and will de-emphasize the heavy stress given to synthetic decoding skills during the past decade and ahalf. These follow with discussion:

1. Use context for developing vocabulary. Present all new vocabulary only in written context. Read aloud the sentence with the new term or grammatical usage for the students, perhaps getting them to "guess" at the word or structure that is new and/or being studied. This process retains the natural sound of the word, phrase or pattern, retains its position in the context and its lexical meaning. The following examples show how important this can be:

   A man can hit the ball
   The food for the cat is in the can.

   (It is wise to use illustrations with beginning ESL readers.)

2. Combine whole-word decoding techniques and less synthetic decoding techniques for teaching word identification. Ives, et. al. identifies the whole-word techniques as:

Visual Configuration (including both shapes and letter arrangements.)
Picture Clues
Semantic Clues (The man put on his best bib and _____ for the Governor's Ball.)
Syntatic Clues (When/Then is he going home?)

Visual configuration would aid the reader to refine and practice the visual discrimination that Smith reported as required for reading. Selective picture clues would aid the reader in selecting important graphic features of the sentence. (This includes using the reader's knowledge and background combined with a language competence of minimal graphic clues.)

To aid the reader in developing rapid recognition of words using only minimal clues, use graphemic bases, or phonograms to teach decoding. Here the base tends to act as a whole-word and the attention is placed on the aspect of the word that is different, the initial letter-sound. This seems appropriate since beginning letters of words are most often used in word identification. For example:

-ack

back	black	
Jack	clack	
lack	flack	(Note: Not all these words are
pack	stack	essential words for the
rack	quack	beginning reader!)

3. Any decoding or phonic strategy should always be taught in relationship to context. Students must first use the context to get meaning. This provides a global setting--an idea of what the word might be. Next, structural word parts should be applied to delimit the choices. Then the word is 'guessed' at. Finally, phonics is used to figure out the pronunciation. It is then used in the context and checked for sense and sound:

Does this make sense?
Does this sound right?

In being able to answer the above questions the second language student requires quite an extensive oral language. Without, there is always the danger of becomming a word reader!

4. Literate first language readers should be taught to use meaning-bearing clues immediately because as first langauge readers, they will normally try to determine relationships, in a drive to find clues for meaning. Consequently, the most useful high frequency ocurring roots/bases, prefixes and suffixes (derivational and inflectional) will provide this information. (See Appendix II, Some Key Prefixes, Suffixes and Roots.)

Finally, in teaching any and all strategies continue to require the student to ask of him/herself: 'Does this make sense? Does this sound right?'

Oral Reading Questionable Indicator of Comprehension. All readers make miscues (Devine: 104), deviations from the anticipated print. All produce non-words. Research concerning miscues has lead to the belief that every word doesn't have to be pronounced for meaning (Allen, p. 108).

What should be important in analyzing or judging a reader's oral reading? Two features of reading seem most pertinent: (1) the semantic acceptability of the miscues before correction (Goodman, 1979, p. 9), and comprehension. Hudelson (1981a) puts it very succinctly, "There is no one-to-one correspondence between accurate pronunciation and reading" for second language readers.

Oral reading proficiency of English by second languge readers is very much affected by specific aspects dealing with production ability of English, both the pronunciation and mastery of the English inflection system. Those difficult aspects of speaking English that a native speaker of other languages encounter in speaking English may also appear as a problem in reading English when the reader reads with meaning instead of word-calling (Buck, p. 95; Romatowski, p. 24). Accurate pronunciation does not necessarily mean that the student understands what they have pronounced. Conversely, inaccurate pronunciation does not necessarily mean that the students are not getting meaning (Hudelson, 1981b, p. 53). Foreign students, according to Mott (p. 66) can have a very clear understanding of the meaning of the item they mispronounced. Reading consists of more than accurate production of sound for each printed sound (Romatowski, p. 26).

Miscues made by speakers of other native languages learning to speak and read English tend to demonstrate the following for those reading successfully:

1. An increasingly approximation of native pronunciation in relation to graphic/phonemic similarity (Mott: 57-66; Devine; p. 112).

2. The production of non-words also common with first language reading process (Haddad; p. 42; Devine; p. 110).

3. The increasing development of syntactically acceptable miscues which strive toward semantic acceptability, or consonance with the meaning of the author (Mott; p. 62-63; Devine, p. 109-110).

4. The better the reader, the more acceptable the semantic accuracy of the reading (Clarke, p. 80). The miscues of these readers change the meaning very little.

The findings from studies of English second language readers, whether literate in a first language or not, supports miscue findings of native readers (Allen). These findings specify the possibility for an oral reader to produce a surface structure not identical to the authors and still have the same meaning. One factor allowing this is an internal correction process that must obviously be on-going to allow meaning to ocurr (Mott, p. 66).

There is some indication from research (Haddah; Hodes) that fear of making errors can result in word-calling or overcorrection to reach text accuracy. This shows misunderstanding of reading. The cause can also result from an intensive code-emphasis reading program during the beginning reading stage.

Reading Evaluation Strategies. Many teachers of refugee children whether they teach language, reading or the students in mainstreamed American classrooms are concerned about the second language student's languge development. This concern may motivate the teacher to become over zealous in aiding the student through modeling or molding the pronunciation during oral reading. Why this often happens in oral reading is due to the teacher's belief that the student's oral reading indicates achievement or understanding. In addition, the fact that we traditionally teach students to read orally before silently provides the setting for this to ocurr. Finally, teachers realize the importance of oral language and consequently want to give the student every bit of possible help to become near-native speakers.

Oral Reading. In dealing with any reader and particularly with one who is not reading a native language, oral language should not be taught during oral reading. A distinction must be made here between reading for meaning or processing information and the use of reading as a medium of instruction to teach language as may ocurr with literate first language speakers learning a second language. If there are pronunciation problems, they certainly must also be ocurring in the oral langauge used by the student. When it ocurrs in reading note it and again work on it from the receptive and/or productive point it deserves at the language time. Do not correct these at this point unless the student seeks aid. If this is too frequent urge him/her to do as best as possible and continue. The reading/language level is probably too difficult.

If the student has some interference from the first language normally this, too, will have been noted beforehand. Correction now will not usually change or correct the situation. Refer this also to the language time. If the student is using these features occuring in reading in their regular English speech, then that reader is probably procesing reading as a meaning getting process.

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* Goodman (1979, p. 9) found that non-words of native readers tended to preserve grammatical endings and intonation of real words.

If the miscue made by the student is not changing the meaning, ignore it! If you are not sure, wait to see when you check the meaning response from the reading. (Comprehension checking will be discussed later in this section.)

Some study of the nature of the learner's language and the normal problems learners from a given language background encounter when they learn to speak English is an essential need for all teachers of refugee or second language learners. This is the knowledge you need to base your decision making. (The National Indochinese Clearinghouse, Center for Applied Lingustics, Washington, D.C. is an excellent source for teachers looking for aids in understanding Indochinese languages, See the Bibliography.)

Informal Testing. Informal reading testing still appears the best of all alternates in determining reading level. Some factors, however, must be considered in selecting the reading for testing. Imperfect as the readability formulas are, they still are some sort of global idea of general difficulty. They should be employed for just that purpose. Combined with this information should be a careful analysis of the conceptual and knowledge background requirements of the material and the socio-cultural pre-requisites required for understanding. Generally, it would be best to select the material to be read from prospective reading materials, the basals being considered. The usual procedures for informal reading testing may be followed until the error count, which usually recognizes quantity, not quality of responses. Then subtract from your error count the following types of miscues:

1. All idiolect changes: final endings, near meaning changes
2. Number changes, tense changes, structure word changes or substitutions
3. Proper noun mis-pronunciations
4. Omissions, reversals and corrections
5. Any non-meaning changes

This procedure will allow you to take into consideration the language production features of the readers. Receptive reading then can be checked by a comprehension check. Then follow the general guidelines for determining the traditional reading levels: Independent, Instructional, Frustrational, and Capacity (see Appendix III).

Reading authorities have been using re-telling as a method of checking comprehension. This technique can probably be attributed to the work of Goodman. It has become a common practice with English second language readers in many locales. This practice has both strengths and weaknesses. Will the reader be able to remember

everything? Will the teacher be able to recognize what the reader says? Does the ESL reader have the oral production facility to explain everything her/she knows, and will he/she do it? Not all these concerns are always able to be accounted for in every situation. However, re-telling can be utilized quite effectively for classroom needs.

In employing the re-telling technique, the teacher needs to first carefully analyze the selection and set out the basic points, propositions or ideas that it presents. These should be stated in the sequence in which they occur for the teacher to use in noting the reader's responses. Thus, if there are five or six, an appropriate amount for an upper elementary student, they are set out with space left for noting responses, and or checking off. After the reader has been encouraged to tell about the reading he/she should then be encouraged through a normal discussion of the selection by raising questions on items not covered. This will check out if some assistance for recall will bring out the meaning. The teacher should always explore further responses not understood, by asking pertinent questions. This may clear up for the teacher any question that develop due to mispronunciations or idiolect features, of the refugee student or English second langauge reader.

An alternate to the above informal procedure is the use of the cloze prcedure for informal testing. Choice of the material in developing this test requires the same care as in selecting the informal reading testing material. It may be that the cloze procedure because of its nature requires a greater langauge proficiency than the same text read without any deletions. The procedure is perhaps more appropriate for the reader who has developed a language proficiency more closely approximating a native speaker at this stage of development. This does not negate the use of the cloze procedure as a teaching practice. It has even proven effective in beginning reading when students are directed to place learned vocabulary into blanks in known sentence patterns or frames.

Oral Language Proficiency Affects Reading Comprehension.

Reading authorities for approximately twenty years have been reporting a relationship between language ability and reading success. Research like Loban's longitudinal study found a correlation between high proficiency in oral language skills and usage, and reading ability and success. In a recent study conducted by Clarke, he stated that a limited control of language 'short circuited' the reader's system. From research with adult Spanish-spakers, he concluded that the importance of language skills for effective reading instruction must certainly be underscored.

In learning to read, Smith (1982, p. 174) reported that reading needs to be read to native speaking children. Just as children mastered the spoken langauge by being involved in it, they will master the written language by being involved in situations that make sense

to them. Forester and Mickelson noted from studying reading acquisition that children tried to turn 'stilted' written language in their basal texts into their own intonation patterns. Accordingly, readers will use their knowledge of langauge to help themsleves in their reading (Sims).

Gomzez determined that language factors contributed to reading failure for bilingual students. Language factors he found contributing to failure were: (1) inadequate oral command of English, and (2) imposition of reading prior to listening and speaking fluency.

E. Perez, working with Mexican-American third graders, called for teaching of reading as an extension of the spoken word. She recommended concentrating on oral language experiences and presenting reading simply as a step in the process of communication founded on oral language skills. This procedure would overcome the factors noted by Gomez.

Ellis supports a strong language or linguistic competence in a language prior to reading in order that the reader will be able to predict, confirm and compose. Without these competencies he reported, the reader will be lacking skills at all linguistic levels required for reading and speech: phonemic, syntactic, and semantic.

Consequently attention must be given to the language of the text. The language of the student for reading must match the language of the text if comprehension or understanding is to occurr. If too much disparity exists between the student's language competence and the language of the text, a loss of understanding will occurr. To overcome this the teacher needs to teach the language expectations of the text prior to reading instruction. When this is accomplished the attention of the reader can be focused on decoding and understanding the content (Gonzales).

Certainly it seems essential that in order to succeed in learning to read English that the potential reader have good listening and speaking abilities in English. Gonzales reported an Oral Language Index developed by Cardona that appears to have potential in evaluating readiness. The author has found useful a guide developed (Appendix IV) for aiding ESL teachers to determine general student readiness tor formal reading instruction.

In dealing with literate first language learners of English the use of reading as a teaching technique appears, from field observations of adults and teenagers, as a learning technique these students apply to learning English. Refugee students often have cultural expectations that study and learning requires books and notebooks, they are often able to apply first langauge reading skills to second language. Considering these factors, listening and speaking skills appear a possibility to be learned in more of a unified whole, then was formerly believed.

Non-literate first language refugee adult and teenagers pose another problem. They, too, often require the semblence of actually writing and reading in notebooks and books for their own self-image. They have a need to learn not only a 'survival' amount of spoken English, but also written English to shop, travel, even around the city, and go to the restroom. More extensive writing and reading skills are needed to apply for a job, read a contract, sign a lease, etc. For these students, first-hand experiences combining an audio-lingual and language experience approach might unify their learning through integrated listening, speaking, reading and writing activities. Although this may not have research to support the suggestion, field practices seem to indicate relative success using this procedure. Language control is provided immediately prior to reading and writing of the related vocabulary and/or sentence patterns. This also fulfills the older student's felt need to read and write what he/she has been practicing orally.

Oral Language Development Strategies. Strategies that will develop and practice oral language competence in and through reading related instruction will be presented under the following headings:

Print-Readiness
Language Experience Approaches
Adapting Commerical Reading Material

Print Readiness. Generally we have accepted that children who have been read to will read. The question is why? Although many ideas have been hypothesized, one reason that seems logical is that reading has come to have meaning to them. They are able to experience a relationship between reading talk and their own talking. There is also the factor of enjoyment and satisfaction that accomplishes reading; making it a valuable or worthwhile activity. Some children also learn to discriminate print as they are read to. This is probably contributable to the practice of running a finger under the print as it is read.

Based on the above reasoning it seems highly feasible to link the written word to the oral for the refugee student learning to read, no matter at what age. Developing a relationship from the surface level of the reading to the oral language can provide some important links for the beginning reader. The second language learner increases listening skills, learns the cultural aspects of Western stories, tales, and poems, learns reading from left-to-right, and perhaps develops some visual discrimination of print in addition to the basic concept that print can have meaning.

Activities having utility for developing print-readiness are as follows:

1. Oral reading to the students all types of literature (as was mentioned earlier in this paper). The teacher should include besides Western Culture material or 'American' material, and folk stories from the cultures represented in the reading

class. These can be written on charts or duplicated for the students to see as you read. Giving older students the duplicated stories is a good practice, whether they can read or not.

In selecting the material make sure that there are repeating lines in the reading, as mentioned before, this encourages simulation of reading. Some teachers have utilized audio-visual techniques to produce these lines so large groups can read as the hand or marker indicates the words.

2. Practice and reinforce specific oral language development skills through reading trade books to the students. Moustafa suggests reading trade books to children that will develop specific skills being taught in oral language, or that need further practice or reinforcement. This practice need not be limited only to children. Trade books are available that can be used at many levels. The following, taken from Moustafa, are some selected to demonstrate the language competencies that can be practiced through use of tradebooks:

   Berenstain, Stan and Jan. Inside, Outside and Upside Down Random House (prepositions)

   Charlip, Remy. Where is Everybody? William R. Scott, publisher (simple present tense)

   Hoban, Tara. Look Again, MacMillan ("What is that?")

   Hutchins, Pat. Rosie's Walk, MacMillan (prepositions)

   Krosilovsky, Phillis. The Very Little Girl, and The Very Tall Girl, Doubleday (comparatives)

   Kraus, Ruth. A Very Special House. Pictures by Maurice Sendak. Harper Row. The Carrot Seed, Pictures by Crockett Johnson, Harper (said, would)

   LeSieg, Theo. The Eye Book, Random House (see, nouns)

   Lenski, Lois. Let's Play House, Henry Walck, Inc. Papa Small, Oxford University Press (present habitual)

   Skaar, Grace. All About Dougs, Dogs, Dogs. Nothing But Cats and All About Dogs. (adjectives, nouns)

3. Use of dramatization and choral reading. These two activities are mentioned again because both can be applied over and over again without becoming boring, thus providing for learning at increasing levels of difficulty. In dramatization children can move from acting out a play from narration to finally speaking the lines. In choral reading children

can move from oral recitation from memory, to following the print, and then actually reading. Try the cloze procedure with a known choral reading and learning and fun in predicting and confirming.

4. Label objects in the classroom. Duplicate labels and have the students match the label with actual object. This activity is as popular with adults as children at the beginning stages of reading and speaking. It is highly motivating and certainly develops discrimination.

5. Develop modified cloze procedures from ESL language texts. Have the student supply as a group words that will fit into a pattern they have learned orally, but now are presented in print. These can be further modified by rebus-type reading techniques. This is excellent for practicing left-to-right reading, visual discrimination, predicting and confirming.

6. Utilize current popular commercial items from television. Collect labels of products or their containers, even photos. Identify these and have them read in English. Young children will enjoy playing store with them and buying and selling (Hudelson, 1981a).

Language Experience Approaches. Many excellent texts have been written concerning the language experience approach to reading. Currently a kit and older instruction materials for teacher use are available. The LEA is recommended as an approach for teaching second langauge readers by reading authorities in second language reading (O'Brien, p. 104). Currently there are many variations of this approach in use. Two types will be mentioned.

Key Words is an approach recommended by Veatch et. al. based on an original concept developed by Sylvia Ashton-Warner. This procedure was observed being used in Arizona by the author kindergartens with bilingual students. It appeared to be well-received by teachers and the students were highly motivated to read. The essense of the technique is as follows:

1. Elicit from the student meaningfully known words. Start with one word that has generally some affective meaning for the student. Write it for the student (Veatch suggests on a large drawing paper for the first words, later on cards.) Have the students trace the word as it is spelled and spoken again.

2. Instruct the student to draw a picture of the word or something involving the word, generally an experience. Later, about the second day, re-check the word. Discard it if not known. Only retain words that have enough meaning for the student to remember.

3. Continue developing words in this manner, eventually expanding into phrases and sentences.

4. One idea the author has adapted for this approach is the use of 'word banks'. Word cards can be kept in these banks, boxes or filing card holders. Various 'long term' savings accounts can be developed to hold the words, phrases, sentences as they are retained for longer and longer periods. These, then, become the sources for writing, and developing games, for example, concentration, and word bingo.

The language-experience approach allows for great flexibility. Teachers feeling insecure in moving completely away from a basal text can use it for a part of a week, two days, for example, while the basal is used the other days. The author has found it effective to use the text for a starting point by selecting reading appropraite for the students and deleating the remaining. Appropriate vocabulary and skills are then selected to be integrated into the remaining reading material. For refugee students who may feel the peer pressure of having a book in their hands, this is somewhat ideal.

The next step in this adaptation is to build a unit around the reading selection, much as if this were social studies or science. In this case, various experiences are developed for the student about the topic which can be used to build background, develop vocabulary and sentence structure understanding. Ideas, or experiences, are always turned into print by teacher, at the beginning, either from the students as a group or individually. Notebooks can be used for student recoding, if desired. Activities then are developed around the written records that aid in developing sentence sense, vocabulary recognition and all reading skills. Additional library reading or tradebooks with low-vocabulary high interest are sought to be used with the topic to further reading skills. Older texts can often be taken apart to retain selections appropriate to the LEA unit.

This modified LEA approach retains high interest and at the same time fulfills the needs of students to use texts and write. It also provides for integration of listening and oral language skills into the lessons. An LEA lesson format for a group is included in Appendix V.

Adapting Commerical Reading Material. Although the above described approach is also a procedure for adapting commercial or basal reading materials, some districts may not approve of such a distinct variation from the approved series. Because many districts have programs where refugee students are in a mainstreamed classroom for part of the day, ESL teachers may feel pressured, if they are teaching reading, to keep the refuggee student in the approved district basal text. The following approach can be used to adapt the basal series reader format when teaching limited English proficient students. The approach is probably best referred to as a basal

choral-reading technique. The procedure is simple and can be used with children, teenagers, or adults for reading anything from a few lines to long passages. Selections should be introduced by building background for the selection, developing vocabulary and syntax understanding. Selections used should either contain socio-cultural understandings known by the students or these must be pre-taught. Procedures follow:

1. The teacher reads a line or as many lines as the students are able to absorb at a time.

2. The students follow along silently as the teacher reads. Expect that there will be some 'mouthing' of the words as you read from both children and adults.

3. Have the student read along with you orally line-by-line, or passage-by-passage.

4. Discuss with the students a general overview of the selection from an aspect of emphasis on predicting what the reading is about. Aid them to determine what they should be learning, or finding out about.

5. Have the students read the selection silently and answer the purposes or the questions the students have raised.

6. Discuss the selection, first from the aspect of the student's pruposes/questions. Encourage further retelling as is appropriate and follow-up with questions to check specific skill features you are developing. Here some oral independent re-reading to prove a point, share an idea, or a favorite part would be appropriate.

7. Skill development as appropriate should follow.

Literate first-language readers at an upper grade level might use a similar type of procedure as developed above. An example of this procedure is found in Appendix VI.

IN SUMMARY

This paper has developed five principles that appear significant for providing effective reading strategies for refugee ESL studnets. Strategies have been suggested that support these principles. It is believed that these would improve instructional practices and reading. Specifically it was recommended that:

1. Students need cultural preparation to read because all reading material is culturally oriented as to plot, characterization, setting, and values. Students predict, confirm, and compose utilizing this information.

2. Students need background knowledge and experiences to read in order to bring meaning to the printed page to predict, confirm and compose.

3. Instruction should emphasize more whole-word techniques which include syntactic and semantic clues as well as configuration and picture clues. Less synthetic decoding clues, graphemic base or phonograms, also seem feasible. These would tend to de-emphasize the surface level of reading and allow more attention to meaning.

4. Reading evaluation strategies should include miscue analysis; deleting language related but non-meaning changing miscues.

5. Strategies that link language to writing and reading should be applied to print readiness, through language experience approaches, and commercial reading material adaptation.

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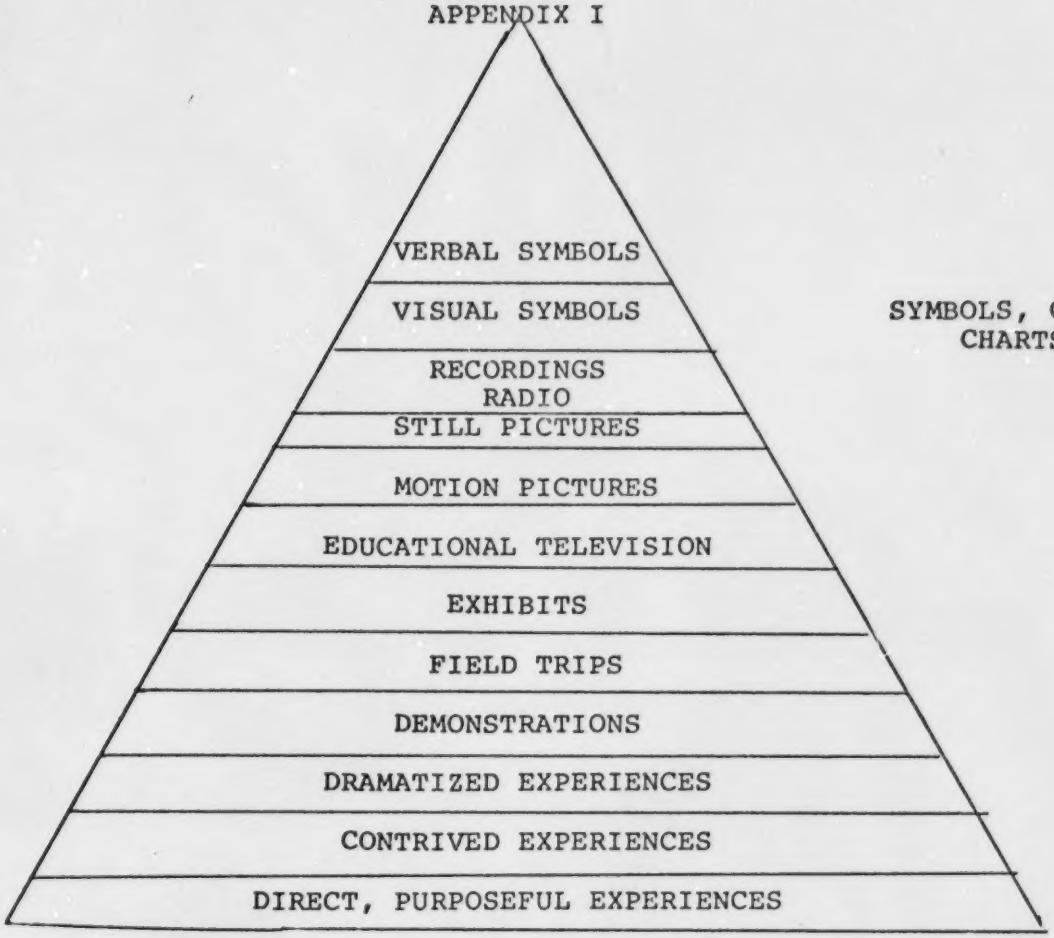
APPENDIX I



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APPENDIX II
SOME KEY PREFIXES, SUFFIXES AND ROOTS

Prefix	Suffix	Root
a (not)	able, ible (can be done)	astro (star)
ab (from)	al, ial (relating to)	aud (hear)
ad, ap (at) (to)	an, ian (relating to)	auto (self)
anti (against)	ary, ery (place for)	bio (life)
be (by)	ette, et (little)	cept (take)
circu (around)	ess (female)	cide (kill)
con, com (with)	fy (make)	cred (believe)
counter, contra (against)	icle, ule, cule (little)	dic, dict (say)
de (down, from)	ine (like)	duc, duct (lead)
dis (apart, not)	ion (state of)	fac, fic (make)
en, em (in)	ism (belief)	fic, fact (make)
ex (out of)	ist (one who)	fer (bear)
in, im (not)	let (little)	geo (earth)
inter (between)	less (without)	gno (known)
micro (small)	ling (little)	graph (write)
mis (wrong)	logy (study of)	gon (angle)
mono (alone, one)	ment (state of)	ject (hurl)
multi (many)	ness (state of)	loc (place)
non (not)	or, er (one who)	meter (measure)
ob, of, op (away, against, from)		mitt (ere) (send)
over (above)		mov, mot (move)
per (through)		onym (name)
peri (around)		pel, puls (push)
pre (before)		phil (love)
post (behind)		phob (hate)
pro (forward)		phon (sound)
re (back, again)		photo (light)
semi, demi, hemi (half)		plic (fold, bend)
sub (under)		port (carry)
super (over, above)		pter (wing)
sym, syn (together, with, alike)		pon (ere) (put)
trans (across)		pos (put)
un (not)		sci (know)
		scrib, script (write)
		scope (sight)
		sist (stand)
		spect (look)
		stare (stand)
		tain (have/hold)
		tele (distant)
		tend (stretch)
		tract (drag)
		vid, vis (see)
		viv, vit (live)
		voc (call)
		volv (roll)
		equ (equal)
		log (speech)

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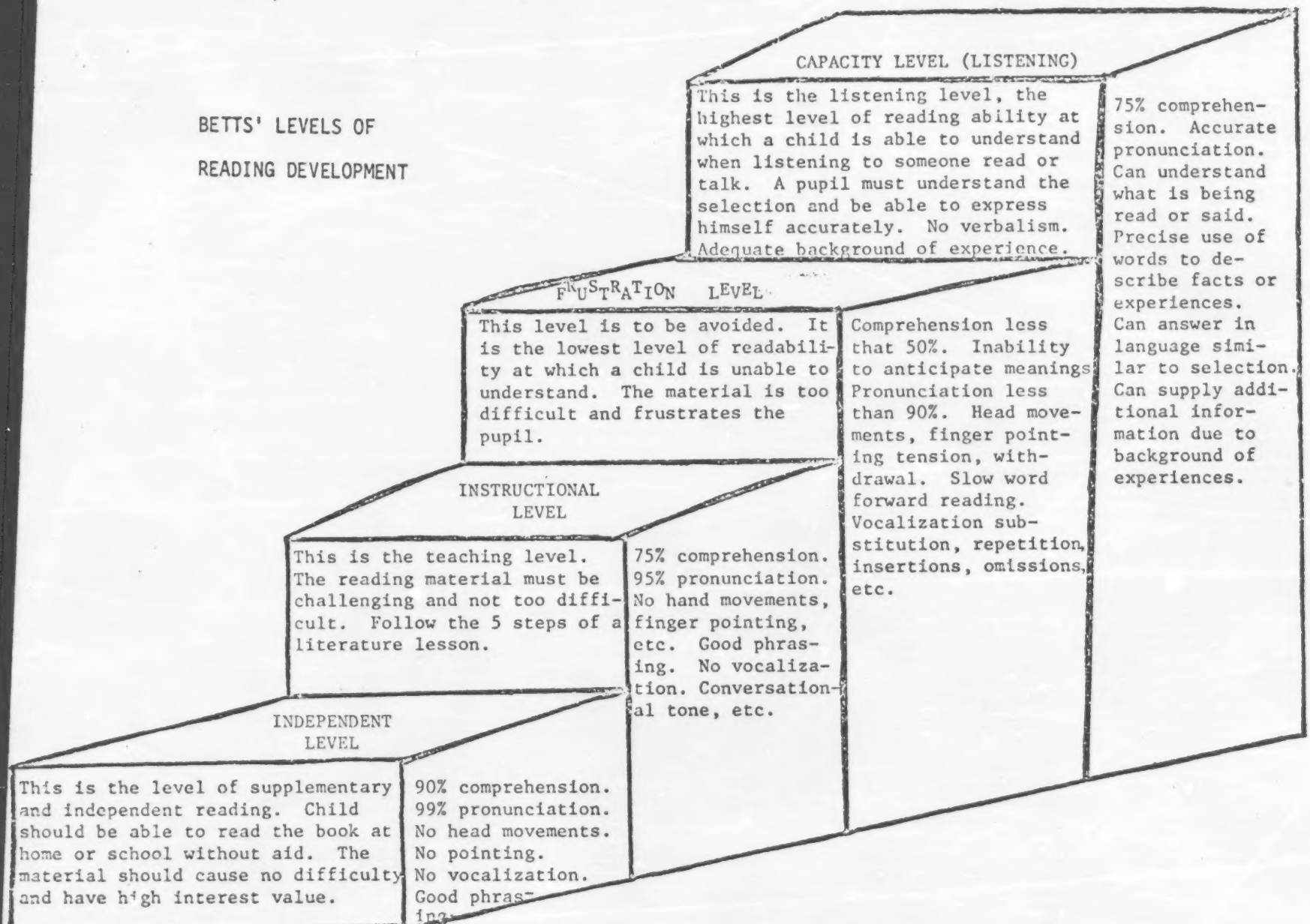
BETTS' LEVELS OF

READING DEVELOPMENT


CAPACITY LEVEL (LISTENING)
This is the listening level, the highest level of reading ability at which a child is able to understand when listening to someone read or talk. A pupil must understand the selection and be able to express himself accurately. No verbalism. Adequate background of experience.
75% comprehension. Accurate pronunciation. Can understand what is being read or said. Precise use of words to describe facts or experiences. Can answer in language similar to selection. Can supply additional information due to background of experiences.
FRUSTRATION LEVEL
This level is to be avoided. It is the lowest level of readability at which a child is unable to understand. The material is too difficult and frustrates the pupil.
Comprehension less that 50%. Inability to anticipate meanings Pronunciation less than 90%. Head movements, finger pointing tension, withdrawal. Slow word forward reading. Vocalization substitution, repetition, insertions, omissions, etc.
INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL
This is the teaching level. The reading material must be challenging and not too difficult. Follow the 5 steps of a literature lesson.
75% comprehension. 95% pronunciation. No hand movements, finger pointing, etc. Good phrasing. No vocalization. Conversational tone, etc.
INDEPENDENT LEVEL
This is the level of supplementary and independent reading. Child should be able to read the book at home or school without aid. The material should cause no difficulty and have high interest value.
90% comprehension. 99% pronunciation. No head movements. No pointing. No vocalization. Good phras-
in-

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APPENDIX IV

A CHECKLIST TO DETERMINE
READINESS FOR INTRODUCING READING

By
Dr. Les Crawford

I. Examples Indicating Listening Facility for Beginning Reading

Follows directions or commands involving two or three actions
Retells stories heard (essential information and appropriate sequence of events)
Maintains interest or is retentive and responsive for appropriate time
Predicts possible outcomes of stories
Memorizes a short poem, riddle or rhyme for speaking.

II. Examples Indicating Language Facility for Beginning reading

Gives personal information, ie. "Who Am I;"
Takes part in discussions and conversations;
Speaks without gross errors in pronunciation
Expresses needs in the classroom situation
Tells or relates an experience understandably
Describes simple classroom and common home objects
Dramatizes an experience in a spoken dramatic play

III. Examples Indicating Concept/Vocabulary Facility for Beginning Reading

Uses basic nouns, pronouns, verbs, modifying words, prepositions and conjunctions;
Demonstrates use of important or familiar words related to the environment: people, places, things, activities;
Classifies and categorizes familiar objects and/or concepts;
Describes places, travel and experiences;
Demonstrates knowledge and use of terms such as first, last, middle; up/down, top/bottom, big/little.

IV. Examples Indicating Print Facility for Beginning Reading

Responds to the language of print of a book or poem read aloud
Enjoys looking at books
Enjoys being read to
Demonstrates interest in words by asking meanings, to have words written, etc.

APPENDIX V

A LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE ACTIVITY FORMAT FOR A GROUP

By
Dr. Les Crawford

TEACHER PREPARATION:

A. Topics. Choose topics dealing with language and learning content that will be the most productive for the ESL student. Topics should hold interest, develop motivation for learning and the student to use known language and increase productive language. Topics can develop easily from common experiences in school, or from field trips.

B. Materials. Use chart paper, lined newsprint or the blackboard for recording stories, experiences or 'learnings.' (Original final sentences can be added individually by each student with teacher assistance.) Students should be able to see the print easily for recording or recopying.

C. Design comprehension activities from the recorded sentences, from using cloze procedures, keeping word banks, writing parallel stories utilizing the same vocabulary and sentence patterns, matching pictures with sentence strips, putting sentences into sequence, etc.

LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE ACTIVITY

1. Preparation and Motivation. Use a set of questions to get students to make discoveries, summaries, or generalizations and provide order and organization about the topic, or experiences. (Vocabulary and sentence patterns should emerge here.) Responses may be recorded on board, chart, or on a tape for recall later and use.

2. Composing. Aid students to structure the written activity from the above questions. During early experiences the quesitons properly ordered may aid the student in writing a sentence and/or paragraph.

   a. Write so all students see you recording the oral language in print.

   b. Call attention to the skills being developed at the specific level, ie., letter/sound, patterns, capitalization, punctuation, etc, appropriate for the beginnign level.

   c. Have each sentence re-read after it is recorded. For example, read the former sentences and then have the next one read, thus adding a line each time.

3. Reading. Reread the selection for the students as they follow along. Use your hand to guide the reading.

   a. Have the student read along with you chorally. One alternate here is to practice clozure techniques to let students see that the word which comes next must make sense.

   b. Have student take turns individually reading.

4. Writing.

   a. Students might copy the story or experiences on papers or in notebooks.

   b. Students may now add a final sentence each dictated individually.

5. Skill Development.

   a. Story may be retyped out of order and students directed to cut and reorder.

   b. Students can match words, match word spoken by teacher with written word, match word to picture.

   c. Students can place correct word in blank in the story.

   d. Students can be directed to find specific happenings in the story or experience and recopy it.

6. Enrichment.

   a. Students might draw or paint a picture for the story or experience or for a particular part of the experience, ie., each sentence or paragraph may have an appropriate picture. These can be attached to a chart via a heavy knitting thread directly from the sentence or paragraph.

   b. Stories in similar topics may be read, or filmstrips used. These should be discussed how similar to 'ours', or how different. Read-along books can also be provided by teacher development.

APPENDIX VI

LESSON STRTEGY FOR LITERATE
FIRST LANGUAGE READERS
by
Dr. Les Crawford

I. PREPARING STUDENTS FOR READING

A. Motivation and Background Building

- develop appropriate understanding for comprehending the selection.
- use visual aids - 'realia'

B. Develop Vocabulary and Syntax Together

- present vocabulary in content or patterns orally, have students practice
- present vocabulary/patterns in print and have students model reading AFTER listening and visualizing.
- aid students to identify and locate 'Key' terms or phrases that are crucial to the meaning - i.e., part of speech, content clue (phrases), morphological clue, topic sentence, conclusions.

C. Preview or Survey Selection

1. Beginning SL Readers (Developing Predicting Technique):

- teacher reads aloud as students listen (line-by-line; later paragraph-by-paragraph)
- students follow print as teacher reads aloud
- students read chorally to model teacher
- students locate vocabulary or syntax in answer to oral questioning

2. Intermediate and Advanced SL Learners

- students survey-skimming and scanning the material to determine general content of reading
- students identify to teacher what is included in the reading material
- advanced students should learn SQ3R

D. Developing purpose for Reading

- students are asked to state the purpose(s) for reading the selection
- purpose(s) is/are written on the board
  (leave room for answering)
  Advanced readers should be able to write purpose(s) on board.

II. READING AND DISCUSSING

A. Material is read silently

B. Discussion

- purposes are answered orally, answers are then written on board. Students copy!
  (Intermediate students should practice writing on board-teacher correction!)
- aid students to develop summaries and generalizations from reading (DE-EMPHASIZE DETAILS)
- beginners may need to read orally to prove points or answer questions

III. SKILL DEVELOPMENT

A. Teach most common prefixes, suffixes, roots or stems and give practice (matching or completion) in combining for meaning. ALWAYS have these used in context! Try Clozes!

B. Provide teacher-developed 'new' stories to read using the same vocabulary and patterns. Here a cloze procedure would be very effective!

C. Give dictation from the story. Student leaders might write on the board -- teacher correct!

D. Have students prepare questions from selection to ask others or re-order garbled sentences or write a question for each paragraph. Answers are summarized information in student's "own words."

E. Develop synonyms and antonyms. Give categorizing and classification practice.

IV. ENRICHMENT

A. Encourage 'creative' writing using known vocabulary and syntax! DE-EMPHASIZE use of the dictionary-develops dependence!

B. Intermediate and Advanced readers should be doing additional "outside" or "recreational" reading related to class reading.